### **Factor Markets**

ECON8069 - Lecture 10

Australian National University

#### Factor Markets

- Unemployment
- The Labour Market
- Employment as Bargaining
- Credit Markets

Textbook: Chapter 23, Chapter 24

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### Unemployment

Unemployment is a measure of the number of unemployed people in a society.

#### **Unemployment - Formal Definition**

A person is **unemployed** if they have did less than 1 hour of paid work, or work in the family business, in the previous week AND is actively looking for work.

The **Unemployment Rate** is the proportion of those people actively looking for work who are unemployed.

 Unemployment reduces output because it means the economy has un-utilised resources

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# Historical Rate of Unemployment (Australia)



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## Types of People

For unemployment purposes, people fall into three categories:

- Not in the labour force (is neither working nor actively looking for work)
- In the labour force; which is divided into:
  - Employed (has worked one or more hour in the past week)
  - Unemployed (is not employed, and is actively looking for work)

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The **participation rate** is the percentage of the adult population (15 years and over) in the labour force

The **unemployment rate** is the percentage of the labour force which is unemployed

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### Issues with the Unemployment Rate

There are a few issues with using the unemployment rate as the only measure of labour under-utilisation:

- Those who would like to work more, but cannot; the underemployed
  - Underemployment is a continuing issue in Australia, with the rise of casual work
  - About 6.1% of workers are underemployed (March 2023)

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  - Particularly acute among women
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Unemployment is still useful for comparison purposes

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## Equilibrium in the Labour Market

The labour market is a *factor market*. As such, it behaves similarly to our markets from microeconomics, but not always exactly the same.

- Demand is now driven by firms
  - The reason is different from goods markets
  - Firms demand labour so they can produce products to make profit
  - We call demand for labour derived demand
  - The 'Marginal Benefit' is really marginal revenue (or profit)

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  - The 'Marginal Benefit' is really marginal revenue (or profit)
- Labour is supplied by households
  - 'Marginal cost' is now purely opportunity cost

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#### Labour Demand

- Due to diminishing marginal product of labour, each worker produces less than the previous
- Even if the price of the good produced stays the same, each worker still produces reduced revenue
- Therefore, the demand curve is downward sloping

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## Labour Supply

- The argument for an upward sloping supply curve is now much trickier
- As wages increase, people may choose to work more, but in certain circumstances may work less
- Empirical results suggest the Labour Supply curve is typically upward sloping at relevant wage rates, but not necessarily

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## Equilibrium in the Labour Market

- To keep things simple we will ignore huge amounts of issues, and assume that there is an aggregate labour demand and supply curve for the whole economy
- Equilibrium occurs (as always) when the quantity of labour supplied equals the quantity of labour demanded
- ullet The wage which makes this happen is the equilibrium wage  $w^*$
- ullet The quantity of labour utilised is the equilibrium employment  $L^*$

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## Types of Unemployment

#### Frictional Unemployment

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#### Structural Unemployment

Unemployment resulting from a discrepancy between the demand for labour, and the supply of labour.

Arises due to market intervention.

## Frictional Unemployment

- Frictional Unemployment is inevitable is a changing economy
- But government programs can affect frictional unemployment
  - Government services to match jobs and jobseekers
  - Public training programs
  - Unemployment benefits
    - lengthens unemployment, but
    - means people end up in better-matching jobs

## Structural Unemployment

Occurs when the wage rate is higher than the equilibrium wage rate.

Some causes of this:

- Minimum Wage Laws
- Unions and Collective Bargaining
- Efficiency Wages
- Downward Wage Rigidity

### Minimum Wage Laws

- Employers are required to pay at least the mandated minimum wage
- This is a price floor in the labour market
- Has the usual deadweight loss caused by price floors

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- Employers are required to pay at least the mandated minimum wage
- This is a price floor in the labour market
- Has the usual deadweight loss caused by price floors
- But; the great majority of workers receive more than the minimum wage
- For most workers the price floor is non-binding; only the least skilled and least experienced workers are effected

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# Unions and Collective Bargaining

- A union is a worker association, which allows workers to negotiate as a group with employers
- Australian history: in the 1970's, more than half of workers were unionised. This number has fallen to about 15%
- Unions use collective bargaining, and can use strikes if there is no agreement
- The effect may be to push the wage rate above the market-clearing wage rate

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# Efficiency Wages

- Efficiency Wages are above-equilibrium wages paid in order to encourage worker productivity
- Low income countries: higher wages allow workers to be well-fed and healthy, and thus more productive
- High income countries: attract better employees, retain those employees

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## Downward Wage Rigidity

- Workers really, really don't like seeing their (nominal) wages fall
- Many firms would therefore prefer to fire some workers rather than lower wages
- This causes wages to stay above the market-clearing rate

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- Given the huge heterogeneity between employees and between jobs, perhaps a standard 'market model' is not ideal
- Instead we could use a Nash bargaining model

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- Instead we could use a Nash bargaining model
- Assumption 1: Combining an employee with a job produces some revenue/surplus
- Assumption 2: This revenue/surplus is divided between the employer and the employee, with the division decided by the bargaining power of the employee vs the employer

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- Assumption 2: This revenue/surplus is divided between the employer and the employee, with the division decided by the *bargaining power* of the employee
- Bargaining power includes individual traits, and outside options
- More bargaining power (of the employee) means they receive more of the surplus as wages
- More surplus means both the employee has a higher wage, and the employee has more profit
- We can graph Bargaining Power against Wage Rate

# Wage Bargaining and the Minimum Wage

In the wage bargaining model, the minimum wage does one of three things:

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- 1. The minimum wage is below the bargained wage, so has no effect
- 2. The minimum wage is below the surplus, and above the bargained wage, so increases the wage (and does not cause unemployment)
- 3. The minimum wage is above the surplus, and causes unemployment

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## Wage Bargaining and Unions

- The effect of unions in this model is to increase the bargaining power of workers
- This makes unionised workers better off, and does not cause unemployment
- Downsides may occur if the unions are so strong that the employer cannot take enough surplus to cover fixed costs

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# Wage Bargaining and Downward Wage Rigidity

- The previous nominal wage rate is a very strong anchor for future negotiation
- So downward wage rigidity could be seen as existing workers having a strong bargaining position that says their wage shouldn't fall
- This may be a problem if the employer cannot take enough surplus to cover fixed costs

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### Two more types of unemployment

- Natural unemployment
  - Unemployment which does not go away, even in the long-run
  - Also called the NAIRU (Non-accelerating inflation rate of unemployment)
  - When people talk about full employment, this is what they mean

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- Natural unemployment
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  - When people talk about full employment, this is what they mean
- Cyclical unemployment
  - Year-to-year fluctuations in unemployment around the natural rate
  - Increases during recessions, falls during booms

#### Credit Markets

- The Credit Market is the market which turns savings into investment
- We keep things simple, assume there is only one market the market for loanable funds
- Savers provide funds for this market, and borrowers use funds from the market
- As always, this is a simplification, but a useful one

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#### Demand for Credit

- Demand for Credit comes from small firms and individuals to start a business, buy a house, etc.
- These people borrow credit and become debtors

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- Demand for Credit comes from small firms and individuals to start a business, buy a house, etc.
- These people borrow credit and become debtors
- Credit is paid for by repaying the initial, or principal, plus an additional payment of interest
- We use i for the (nominal) interest rate
- Demand for credit is downward sloping as, when credit is cheaper, more investment opportunities are profitable

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#### Real and nominal interest rates

- The real price of a loan needs to include the nominal interest, and also account for inflation
- The **Fisher Equation** relates he real interest rate (r), the nominal interest rate (i), and inflation  $(\pi)$

$$r = i - \pi$$

 While banks advertise in nominal terms, what's important is the the real rate

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#### Shifts in Demand

Shifts in the demand for loans can come from:

- changes in perceived business opportunities for firms
- changes in household preferences or expectations
- changes in government policy

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# Supply of Credit

- Supply of Credit comes from households and firms (private savings)
  and governments (public savings)
- When the interest rate increases, households have a greater incentive to save, so supply of loans increases
- Therefore, the supply of credit is upward sloping
- Shifts in supply can be caused by
  - changes in the savings motives of households
  - changes in the savings motives of firms

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### The Credit Market

- Banks operate as the middle-men; linking debtors and lenders
- They also manage risk, making sure money is lent only to those who are likely to repay it
- In practice, different debtors pay different interest rates based on the likelihood of default
- The real interest rate in the economists credit market usually assumes a near-zero likelihood of default

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